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ABSTRACT

The results of a two-day skill laboratory on creating community support for educational change is reported in eight chapters. Participants focused on creative solutions to problems of school-community relations. Four concerns identified included the need to 1) recognize the pressures for accountability procedures and reports; 2) collaborate with community agencies which have responsibilities and services related to children and the family; 3) develop resourcefulness in responding to and getting support of groups with conflicting ideas about educational priorities; and 4) use nonprofessional human resources in providing educational services to children. Chapter I summarizes the activity of the workshop. Chapter II examines current and future social trends affecting school-community relations. Chapter III lists community interest groups and suggests ways to initiate collaboration. Chapter IV focuses on the necessity and functions of school advisory committees. Chapter V discusses the role of volunteers in the school, with an emphasis on duties, and on recruiting, screening, dismissing, and organizing. Chapter VI suggests methods for working with differences and conflicts. Chapter VII identifies strategies for group maintenance and support for change teams, organizations, and committees. Chapter VIII presents specific tools for action. Included are: an image of potentiality exercise; methods and forms for force-field diagnosis; methods and forms for an action plan; techniques for brainstorming and consultation in the round; forms for planning a meeting; and procedures for personalized skill practice. (KC)

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The Educational Community:

Building the Climate for Collaboration

by

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USER'S GUIDE

PREFACE i

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS ii

INTRODUCTION iii

CHAPTER I—CREATING COMMUNITY SUPPORT FOR EDUCATIONAL CHANGE 1

Activities, Content, and General Design 1

CHAPTER II—SEVERAL CURRENT AND FUTURE SOCIAL TRENDS AFFECTING SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS 13

Postures Toward the Future 13

Trends 14

Consumer Power 14

Interdependence Requiredness 14

Increasing Polarization of Sub-Groups 15

Changing Life Styles and Values 15

Human and Humane Service Needs 16

Citizen Leisure Time Utilization 17

Application of Trends 18

CHAPTER III—COLLABORATION FOR COMMUNITY-WIDE EDUCATION 19

Dos and Don'ts of Community Collaboration 20

Examples of Two-Way Collaboration 20

Community Collaboration Project 20

Application of Ideas 22

CHAPTER IV—SCHOOL ADVISORY COMMITTEES 23

Reasons for Existence 23

Ways to Recruit 24

Committee Functions 25

CHAPTER V—VOLUNTEERS IN THE SCHOOLS 27

Values of a Volunteer Program 28

Questions and Answers About Volunteer Programs. 29

Organizing a Volunteer Program 32

CHAPTER VI—WORKING WITH DIFFERENCES AND CONFLICTS 35
Fifteen Interpersonal Techniques 35
CHAPTER VII—SOME APPROACHES TO TACKLING THE CHALLENGE OF SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS . . . 39
Six Possibilities for Maintenance and Support 39
CHAPTER VIII—TOOLS FOR ACTION: CREATING COMMUNITY SUPPORT FOR EDUCATIONAL CHANGE 43
Specific Tools 43
The Greeting Sheet 43
Image of Potentiality Exercise 44
Force-Field Diagnosis 45
Action Plan 46
Brainstorming 50
Consultation in the Round 51
Planning a Turned-On Meeting 51
Procedure for Personalized Skill Practice 55
Group Interview 56
BIBLIOGRAPHY 58

PREFACE

This book, The Educational Community: Building the Climate for Collaboration, is the outgrowth of a two-day skill lab entitled "Creating Community Support for Educational Change," which was held in the Resource Center of the Allegheny Intermediate Unit, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, on April 2 and 3, 1974.

It is a report of the process and outcomes that nine school district teams in Allegheny County, Pennsylvania, focused upon while seeking creative solutions to problems of school-community relations. It is also an emerging blueprint of the images of potentiality – of what could be – developed by the district teams.

This exciting experiment in the development of community utilization in an educational context was initiated through the cooperation of the Allegheny Intermediate Unit, Dr. Harold E. Oyer, Executive Director; and the Social Science Education Consortium, Dr. Irving Morrissett, Executive Director. The skill lab and this resulting report was made possible through a grant from The Henry C. Frick Educational Commission, Mrs. Margaret D. Wilson, Executive Director.

We at the Educational Resources Center hope that through this medium, many others can share, at least in part, our enthusiasm for the potential of "community support for educational change."

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The skill lab and this book would not have been possible without the additional cooperation of the Babcock School District, Chartiers Valley School District, Churchill Area School District, Gateway School District, McKeesport Area School District, North Allegheny School District, Northgate School District, Shaler Area School District, Upper St. Clair School District; the Educational Resources Center Superintendents' Advisory Committee; the Consultants—Eva Schindler-Rainman, Ronald Lippitt, James Davis; Dr. Harold E. Oyer, Executive Director of the Allegheny Intermediate Unit; Dr. James B. Schmunk, Director of the AIU/Educational Resources Center; Robert H. Watford, Workshop Coordinator; and Mrs. Margaret D. Wilson, Executive Director of The Henry C. Frick Educational Commission.

Special thanks to Margaret McGregor and Beverly Dulaney for the type composition, and Deborah Wiesenfeld for the cover design.

INTRODUCTION

The pre-workshop needs assessment data, and the discussions during the workshop identified several current confrontations and challenges related to the area of school-community relationships. All of these confrontations were worked on in various ways by the school district teams during the two days.

First, there was a growing concern about the pressures for accountability procedures and reports—it was clear in various districts there was a growing expression of interest by parents and other community citizens concerning the quality and cost of the educational program and some evidence of its capability of achieving goals. This sense of community concern was reflected in the interests of the participants in discovering more effective ways of involving the citizens, teachers, students, and others in program evaluation and improving the process of giving information and involving citizens in a fuller understanding of educational programs, use of buildings, priorities for budget, and support for innovations in curriculum and student activities.

A **second** confrontation recognized by the administrators was the growing need to collaborate more fully with the other agencies and organizations of the community which also have responsibilities and programs related to the educating and serving of children and the family. The coordination of such efforts as drug education, sex education, vocational learning opportunities and employment were examples of needs for coordination and collaboration between the school and other agencies as collaborating peers.

A **third** area of great sensitivity was the recognition of the need to develop greater resourcefulness in responding to, interpreting to, and getting the support of groups with conflicting ideas about educational priorities. There were many questions about who should be included in various advisory, consultative, and informational activities; what approaches there should be to conflict over redistricting and busing; many other areas of current conflict about curriculum, educational program, group programming, and grouping.

The **fourth** concern, quite acute in some districts, was the recognition of the need to begin, or to greatly expand, the use of nonprofessional human resources as part of the providing of educational services to children and youth. This included questions about the use of paid aides, the appropriate recruiting and training, and rewarding of volunteers; ways of coping with the resistance of many teachers to the expansion of human resources in the classroom through the utilization of both adult volunteers and older children in cross-age tutoring activities.

Underlying these four confronting concerns there was a recognition of the need for a much expanded and enriched set of professional development activities for the administrative and teaching staff of the school district. There was the recognition that administrators must learn new skills to appropriately develop their community relations roles in relation to other leaders in the community. There was the recognition that administrators, in addition to achieving greater competence in management skills, must also achieve human relations skills in the area of consultation, team building, and community problem solving. There was recognition that teachers must learn new skills in order to utilize community resources for the enrichment of educational programs in the classroom and in the community for the young learners. And it became increasingly recognized during the course of the professional development workshop that each school district must develop new techniques of identifying the great richness of volunteer human resources available for various functions needed by the school district. Also, it was clear that school districts must discover ways of recruiting the involvement of these resources in a great variety of ways in the classroom, in advisory committees, in adult task forces, in parent education and involvement programs, in community education efforts, and in many other creative ways.

As the workshop developed it became increasingly clear how important the concept of district teams was for the realistic development and initiation of significant improvements in school-community relations in the school district. Those teams which included top administration, as well as representation from boards and the community, demonstrated the greatest readiness and capability to tackle effectively the challenging problems of creative development of the total educational community. In addition it was recognized that a two-day professional development workshop or action-development workshop can only be a start up. A continuing resource of consultation and stimulation is needed to help teams carry through on their good plans and good intentions. Therefore the availability of continuing support from the internal staff was seen as a critical element in the success and feasibility of the total program.

With these background ideas in mind we invite you to join in sharing the work and learning experiences of the two-day start-up workshop. In the chapters that follow there is reporting on the work which was done in relation to the confrontations which served as a springboard for our work together.

We believe this brief report of our experiences can serve as a springboard for work in other districts. For this reason in each of the sections of the report we have suggested some possible activities which might utilize our experience as a start-up for discussion and activity, and we have included at the end of our report a set of tools and procedures which helped us to work effectively during our two days. We believe they may be suggestive of adaptations for your purposes.

The Educational Community:

CHAPTER I – CREATING COMMUNITY SUPPORT FOR EDUCATIONAL CHANGE

In order to give you, the reader, a feeling for this workshop, we'd like to take you on a quick trip through its activities, content, and general design.

Who came to the workshop? Members from nine school districts in the Allegheny Intermediate Unit. The nine teams were quite differently composed–some had three career education persons; others the superintendent, curriculum specialists, and a principal or two; yet another configuration was the superintendent, a school board member, two community members, and one administrator. Whatever the composition, eight of the nine teams were made up of two or more people from a particular district. The workshop was designed for team participation so that any action implementations could be carried through more easily because several people could go back to the district to support one another.

The workshop was held on two consecutive days, from nine in the morning to four o'clock in the afternoon, in the Resource Center of the Allegheny Intermediate Unit. It was possible for all teams to meet in one room. Each team had a round table as its "turfdom" with a table placard identifying the district. Lunch was held from 12:30 to 1:30 and there were no official coffee breaks. Coffee, tea, and sweet rolls were available all morning; coffee, tea, and lemonade was available in the afternoon. This made it possible for participants to meet personal needs at convenient times rather than having regimented official break times.

On each table was located a pen and a stack of large newsprint sheets for use as team worksheets. Several newsprint easels were around the room as you see in the photographs.

The resource staff was made up of three consultants: Dr. James Davis, Dr. Ronald Lippitt, and Dr. Eva Schindler-Rainman. This outside resource staff had inside support staff members, Dr. James Schmunk, Robert Watford, and Margaret Kirik. The inside members were staff of the Educational Resources Center of the Allegheny Intermediate Unit. A total workshop population of 32 people from the nine districts, and six resource and support staff people made up the group that worked together for two days.

FIRST DAY

How did the work flow? The workshop began with a large greeting sheet which welcomed people as they came in to get coffee or tea, and all staff were available for first "hellos" (See Tool 1, Chapter 8). Participants were directed to their tables and found a sheet entitled "Start-Up Conversations" which asked them to talk with one other person whom they did not know, to get to know them, and to find out why they had come to the workshop, as well as what they were involved in in their district at this moment that they found very exciting. This kind of beginning meant that as soon as two people who did not know each other arrived they could sit down and begin talking. We often refer to this method as the "raggedy beginning method," so that people can get started whether they come a little sooner or a little later.

About a half an hour into the workshop we asked the participants to tell us some of the things that they had learned about each other during these conversations. Then we moved to asking the participants to sit by district groups. The first task of each district was to develop a headline that would characterize the district, i.e., how this district would like to be known by the rest of the workshop's participants. Some samples of typical headlines were:

"Schools Open on 5 to 4 Vote"

"Citizens, Staff, Students Make Schools Grow"

"No Generation Gap Here, Adults Interested in Kids"

"Who Are Your Children's Heroes?"

"Change Learning Environment, Physical Facilities to Meet New Student Needs"

"Challenge to Individualization"

"Change or Innovation Whatever the Cost; It Ain't No Taj Mahal But It Is Home"

"Minds Matter"

"Where Kids Count and Parents Too"

"Trust in Its Past, Faith in the Future"

These headlines evoked conversation, laughter, nods, questions, and began the interchange between people from different districts who did not know each other before the workshop.

We then moved to look at some of the societal trends affecting school districts. The content of these trends is covered in Chapter 2, but in terms of the workshop flow it is important to say here that the trends served as a backdrop for looking at the kinds of social, economic, and political factors that are affecting school district operation. For example, the whole increase in student, parent, and citizen power and interest was one of the trends mentioned. After a presentation of each trend, workshop participants were asked to illustrate with examples from their districts, any manifestations of these trends. This technique not only gave additional background to participants, but again offered another way for people in the room to get to know each other and to begin to hear some of the kind of experiences and resources that would be available to them as they began to work together.

We then moved to utilizing data that had already emerged to do some realistic goal planning. The method that was introduced is called "Images of Potentiality"* (See Tool 2, Chapter 8). Sometimes the method is just referred to as "imaging." It relies on a number of assumptions. Among these are:

(1.) In order to do realistic goal planning, the planners must have in mind a specific goal they wish to achieve.

(2.) The goal must be realistic and doable.

(3.) In taking a leap in time—six months, a year, two years, whatever—and looking ahead in the present tense from a perspective distance, like from a helicopter, one can look at what is going on that pleases one with the progress in one's district in a way that makes this a very creative, exciting activity; the ideas flow from a forward vision rather than being based on frustrations about problems and pain.

(4.) It is known that people are more creative when they can plan from a basis of vision and hope than if they are basing their plans on problems and pain.

(5.) There is much evidence that planning in a supportive group means that more ideas, more excitement, and more investment in implementation will occur if such planning goes on on an individual basis.

So the groups were asked to take a sample trip and imagine that it was now June, 1975. They were asked to observe from a helicopter:

"In what ways human resources of your community are being used to improve the quality of education of the young?"

"In what ways are differences and conflicts of beliefs and lifestyles being used creatively in your district?"

*This technique is described in: Towards A Humane Society: Images of Potentiality by Robert S. Fox, Ronald Lippitt, and Eva Schindler-Rainman (Fairfax, Virginia: NTL-Learning Resources Corporation, 1973).

Each group did an imaging sheet and listed some of the kinds of things that they saw happening a year and several months hence that pleased them in the two areas mentioned above. They described their images in the present tense—they were "in the future."

A sample of the images includes:

"Parents from each school area and subcommittees are involved with professionals in a district-wide elementary school evaluation using Elementary School Evaluative Criteria to set priorities for the future."

"District-wide volunteer action center has been developed for pooling resource personnel for training, participation, and continuous education."

"Expansion of parent advisory council now includes representative of League of Women Voters, AAUW, and others."

"There is a red ribbon committee of business and community leaders to identify the public image of the school and recommend alternatives, resolutions, and ideas to help in conflict situations."

"Students are having lunch with key community leaders."

"Volunteers in the schools are assisting in helping educate and contribute to the learning and the environment of the school."

"Students are contributing ideas for improving communications with the community."

"More elements of community persons who are dissident, as well as those who are cooperative, are represented on district-wide committees and councils."

"New community people are participating on curriculum, activities, and other committees."

"We now have 50 students as interns in some of our community businesses, industries, and social agencies."

"We have community volunteers assisting each kindergarten, reading, learning disability teacher, and librarian."

"Committees of parents, students, and professional staff are formally involved in planning, implementing, and evaluating curriculum programs."

"We have a planning committee to utilize the new high school year-round."

"Social agencies are providing services in the school, in the school setting, as a regular practice rather than on a crisis basis."

"School board members are working as volunteers in the schools."

"Pupil personnel services are providing experiences for the community to increase human understanding and communication between all factions."

"Schools are open from 7:00 a.m. to 11:00 p.m. for vocational and avocational interests."

"Students have freedom of choice in program."

"We have scrapped attendance requirements."

"Schools and the university are working together on problem analysis, solution prescription, and people training in the school setting."

"Community views school as a place where people help children learn versus a place to send kids."

Each team put up on the wall its large newsprint sheet of images so that people from other teams could read them. Then the staff pulled together some of the common themes and threads they saw in the images. These included the involvement of the community in evaluation, the need for volunteers, the development of coordination and/or resource centers to help the school, the need for community involvement with the school, the need for engagement of business and community leaders as volunteers in the school, and the need to look at the involvement of the uninvolved, such as retired persons.

After the overall look at everybody's images each team was asked to take its sheet back down from the wall, take a look at its lists and decide which of those images had priority for them in order to select one to work on. It was suggested that each team keep the following criteria in mind as they were choosing one image to work on during the workshop. These were:

(1.) The image be doable.

(2.) It was something that the team really wanted to do and felt they could do.

(3.) They had some kind of picture of who else could be involved to help them do it.

Most teams had more than one image that they felt strongly about and wanted to implement, but after approximately fifteen minutes each team decided upon one image they would translate into a goal and work on for the rest of the afternoon.

Just before they went to work, the group was acquainted with the technique known as "force-field analysis" (See Tool 3, Chapter 8). This technique was originally developed by Dr. Kurt Lewin, for the purpose of helping social engineers, i.e., people helpers, to do a more accurate job of diagnosing the forces that would help or hinder their achieving their particular goal. This method has been widely used in the social sciences. A shortened version was shared with the participants.

They were asked to put their goal at the top of a new piece of newsprint paper. They were then asked to divide the sheet in half and list on the one side all the supports, the resources, the helps they could

think of that would get them towards the goals, and on the other side all the restraints or the blocks that would be in their way as they worked towards the goal. It was further suggested that these forces be divided into forces within the person, within the self, forces within the system—meaning the school system, and forces within the community that would either help or hinder.

For example, one team's goal was to develop a student-teacher-parent curriculum advisory committee. Among the supports for action, under self, were included good feelings about working with students; among the restraints were concern about spending all that time with people whom you don't know.

Under system as a resource was listed the superintendent has said "go ahead." Another support was the fact that there were students anxious to participate in such a committee; another support was that there were teachers anxious to help on such a committee. On the restraint side, under system, was the kind of feeling that we've never done this kind of thing before, or, secondly, if you asked them do they make the decision.

Under community, the supports included the number of parents who have interests of this kind; a second one was that there are known examples of this working in other communities. Under restraints was that there is in this community a small group who think that they have all the answers or that there are people who think they ought to be asked, but who might not be the people we most want.

Each team then proceeded to do a force-field analysis of the particular goal they were working on and the resource staff consulted with each team to be sure that they were looking at all the possible forces that might either help or hinder. After listing the forces, team members were asked to indicate those forces which were the strongest, the biggest helps or the strongest or biggest blocks as they perceived it. They then brainstormed two kinds of things:

(1.) All the people we need to involve to cope with some of the key resistances.

(2.) All of the kinds of people we need to invoive as key resources.

So each team, then, had a list of supports available that they could go back to in their community to get some help on implementing their particular image-goal.

The total group then produced a list of ideas of all the kind of actions that they would need to take, including meetings, individual contacts, telephone conferences, informal meetings in order to get their particular goal on the road. Together, as a group, they looked at the first steps that might be necessary to implement any goal (See Tool 4, Chapter 8).

To close the afternoon of the first day the resource staff modeled a skill practice session. They role played a situation in which a knowledgeable, bright mother who has requested a conference with the superintendent meets with the assistant superintendent, who has been asked by the superintendent to see her. She has just been on a trip to Japan where she learned how to do Japanese flower arrangements. She wants very much to offer her services as a volunteer to the schools to help girls learn how to do Japanese flower arranging. The assistant superintendent must cope with this request by the mother.

While the role play was going on, half the group of participants were asked to observe the mother, to try to figure out why she was behaving the way she was, and the other half were to observe why the assistant superintendent behaved as he did. The scene was played, cut, and then the participants were asked for their observations. The observations about each role player's behavior were listed, then the total group was asked to brainstorm (See Tool 5, Chapter 8) all the ways the assistant superintendent could handle the mother more effectively. Then the assistant superintendent could play the role over again to see if he could handle the situation more appropriately and creatively. The key to skill practice is the opportunity to try alternative ways of coping in a safe, not for keeps, situation.

After the skill practice there was a summary of all of the methods that had been used during the day, with a discussion of how each of these methods could either be utilized or adapted back in the district situations of the participants.

SECOND DAY

A second-day greeting sheet welcomed the participants as they arrived with the coffee, tea, and rolls. A suggestion was made on the greeting sheet that as teams gathered they now go back to the list developed the day before about possible first steps of action, selecting and deciding on their own first steps of action which they would take as soon as the workshop was over. Each team worked on this action-plan with help from the resource staff to test whether their steps were doable, realistic, and clear. All teams were then asked to chose one meeting that they, as a team, might have to design as part of their implementation strategy.

In order to demonstrate ways to design turned-on meetings the resource team did a "consultation in the round" (See Tool 6, Chapter 8) with one of the teams in the workshop. This particular team was designing a community-wide meeting to help community citizens under-

stand why a new building was being built and what its functions would be. The group from this district was asked such questions as:

Who should be at such a meeting?

What outcomes do you think would make it a successful meeting from your point of view?

What things might you do during the meeting to facilitate these outcomes?

Who needs to be involved ahead of time?

Some of the kinds of answers that the team gave were that they would have to attract young, middle, and older people, adults who had youngsters in the school, as well as those who didn't.

They said that they would be happy if they could increase the understandings for the plans of the new building on the part of the people who came, and if they could raise a positive attitude about the plan in their community. They would be additionally happy if they could have, from the group that comes to the community meeting, some small follow-up task forces.

They were agreed that the building committee of the board, the architect, the superintendent, some faculty, and some representatives from the community needed to be involved ahead of time if the meeting was to be a success.

They then discussed with the resource staff some of the kinds of methods they might use, some of the kinds of resources and facilities they would need, and the kind of alternatives that were open to them. These included such things as having 3 x 5 cards to write questions on, a brief slide presentation with a chance for talk-back by participants,

an interview of the architect by some students rather than a speech by him about the new building, photographs of plans for the new building that people could really look at, and perhaps the opportunity of a short presentation by the superintendent or members of the board, of the need to have some of the participant's help with follow-up from this meeting.

After the consultation in the round, each group was asked to plan their own meeting, but again with consultation being available by the resource staff. A planning chart was provided (See Tool 7, Chapter 8).

This activity was followed by three simultaneous workshops. These workshops were designed to meet some of the specialized interests and requests by the participants that had been elicited at the end of the first day. There was a workshop on the utilization of volunteers in the school system; another one was on collaboration between school and community organizations and institutions; and the third one was on the development and use of school advisory committees. The content and discussion of each of these workshops will be found in Chapters 3, 4, and 5 that follow.

It was suggested that teams decide whether or not they all wanted to go to one workshop or wanted each member of the team to go to a different workshop so that they could report to each other later. Also, each workshop had a recorder who wrote on a ditto master the kinds of things that were discussed in the workshop so that after lunch these dittoed reports were available to everyone in the total workshop rather than being available only to those people who had gone to one of the three interest workshops.

Skill practice of critical, interpersonal situations that the teams anticipated they would need to know how to handle was the next activity. This, of course, was built on the staff model of the afternoon before. Skill practice is based on the notion that all people have good intentions, goals, and a need to implement plans, that these three converge in a commitment to act, but that this commitment does not always result in skilled behavior. Therefore, the purpose of skill practice is to give the participants an opportunity to practice how to put their commitment to act into skilled behavior. They were invited to practice as many times as they needed to in order to have a variety of skilled ways to express their intentions (See Tool 8, Chapter 8).

The kinds of things that were practiced can best be illustrated by the following "punchlines." These are the final confronting sentence of the person presenting a dilemma by his behavior; such as:

"Your modern math programs have produced a decade of kids who can't study or add." This was a parent saying this to a curriculum director.

Parent to teacher: "I don't know how you do it, all those kids in one room."

Principal to teacher: "We'll do it this way."

School volunteer to a teacher: "You've taught me all those things, why don't you give me a chance to do them."

A district personnel director to a parent: "We don't have the qualified personnel to do those kind of things with kids."

Each group using its own punchlines, set up a situation, decided on the characters involved, and played it out to the punchline, then brainstormed all the ways to handle the difficult person and tried one, two, or three of those ways to see which ones might work.

As a report-out from this activity we got a list of a variety of approaches to handling conflicts and differences. These are discussed in detail in Chapter 6.

The workshop then ended with a group interview of participants to find out how they had felt about the workshop. Actually four group interviews were held simultaneously with the resource staff and the support staff acting as interviewers. The questions they asked of each small group were:

(1.) What in this workshop was helpful to you and why? Each group answered this and discussed it, and the leader took notes on their discussion.

(2.) What kinds of things do you plan to do as follow-up of this workshop?

(3.) Whom will you report or talk to about what?

(4.) What are your next steps?

(5.) What kind of support or consultation or follow-up do you wish after this workshop?

The staff interviewers reported out to the total group the kind of follow-up suggestions that had been made. These included: a one-day follow-up workshop for all the alumni of this workshop, a request for a roster of all the participants and staff, a request for a large bibliography, a request for a follow-up report, and a request for similar workshops for additional districts.

At the end of each day the methods that had been used that day were listed and discussed in terms of back-home applicability. These methods included: brainstorming, the conversation start-up, discussions, small table groupings—both mixed groups and team groups, variety from small group to total group work, imaging, force-field analysis, the use of newsprint in a whole variety of ways, documentation on ditto masters, milling to read the newsprint reports on the wall, and take notes, problem solving tasks, individual and group consultation by the staff, role playing, interest workshops, group interviews, skill practice situations, and total group discussions, as well as lecturettes.

As can be seen from the above it was a busy two days in which one activity flowed into another. The rest of this booklet will describe more in detail some of the kinds of things that were done and some of the ideas that emerged as a result of the work of the group that comprised the workshop **"Creating Community Support for Educational Change."**

CHAPTER II – SEVERAL CURRENT AND FUTURE SOCIAL TRENDS AFFECTING SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS

The future's always with us, at least the immediate future, as we plan and project our activities and programs. Most of us in the context of our busy professional lives have difficulty taking the time to explore and look into some of the long-term projections from the creative ideas of the futurists, or examining some of the wider contexts, such as the community, within which our current activities are embedded and heavily influenced.

POSTURES TOWARD THE FUTURE

Administrators and planning groups tend to take several different postures toward dealing with data about the future, i.e., with predictions of what our future might look like in education or in the community, or in the larger society.

One of these postures might be expressed as, "We've got to figure out how to adapt and to adjust so we don't find ourselves obsolete in regards to our jobs, our roles, our type of curriculum, or the place of the school in the community." This posture looks at the flow of social change as inevitable and uninfluenceable and poses questions about adapting and adjusting.

A second posture takes a somewhat more activist posture which might be expressed as, "Let's look at the shape of things to come so that we can figure out what kind of new resources and new readiness there will be for us to push ahead with our priorities, for example about quality education." This posture tends to orient to the future in terms of new opportunities to be actualized rather than in terms of new confrontations and demands to be adapted to.

A third posture looks with active distrust and discontent on the pressures toward change and in essence says, "How can we resist these trends that threaten us and which we don't feel good about. For example, the trend seems to be toward heterogeneous learning groups from families and subcultures of different backgrounds and we want homogeneous groups as our value." Much of the energy of those with such a posture must be expended on defense and counterattack.

A fourth posture says, "Of course our environment and the shape of the future are important determinants of the expectations and opportunities and resources we have to deal with, but our major responsibility is to initiate the kind of trends and changes in our own situation that we believe are in line with our best values and our best knowledge about what is feasible and can win support."

These and other postures can be heard as one listens in on the dialogues in almost any long-range or short-range planning group of school board members, administrators, or teachers.

TRENDS AFFECTING SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS

The six trends, which are presented very briefly below, were drawn from a variety of trends, trend studies, and projections of the future, and selected because they seem to have direct implication for the improvement of school-community relations. In this report we will identify these six trends only briefly, indicating some of the implication statements that came out of the discussions, and suggesting some ways in which further work can be done on trend identification and on the use of trend data as a stimulus for planning and action development within your school district.

Trend 1: "Consumer Power Trend"

All studies of social change and the future observe and predict that there is a great increase in the demand for a piece of the action by those who are being served, whether they be learners, consumers, or clients. In the effort and need to find meaning and to have a sense of influence, power, and involvement, students, parents, citizens, and consumers are expressing the expectation and the demand that they have a voice in what goes on; that they be included in decision making and have a share in implementation and a share in evaluation. The "accountability trend" is just one manifestation of this great ground swell of need and demand for involvement.

As school district teams reflected on this trend and considered the implications for their own leadership in their districts, they suggested such implications as:

(1.) The need to broaden the base of participation in citizen advisory committees.

(2.) A more reciprocal sharing of curriculum planning with students, parents, community professionals, and others.

(3.) More acceptance of educational program as a community program rather than as a separate turfdom of those who do their work in a particular building known as the school building.

Trend 2: "Interdependence Requiredness"

There is an increasing recognition that the important decisions to be made and problems to be solved require an increasing variety of expertness and coordination in order to arrive at competent sophisticated solutions. There is recognition that as problems become more complex, or we become more sophisticated about all aspects of a problem, there is increasing recognition of the requiredness for more collaborative interdependence between different persons and groups to appropriately solve the problem.

As the school district teams reflected on this trend they discovered a variety of implications for themselves such as:

(1.) The school administrator must develop skills of moving out

into the community and interacting with other program leaders in the community as his peers in mutual goal setting and planning to meet the growth and development needs of the children and youth.

(2.) The adequate implementation of many of the most significant programs for education and welfare of children and youth will require the merging of public and private funds to provide the appropriate financial and human resources.

(3.) In order to get adequate perspective and problem-solving resources for many of the most important problems which education faces, there must be a greater readiness to utilize, on a temporary basis, technical resources and skilled consultation to minimize the waste of energy and time in tackling ever-new problems and challenges.

Trend 3: "Increasing Polarization of Many Subgroups in the Society"

Most of the studies of the future observe and predict that there will be a continuing and often growing freedom to express conflict and to clarify differences of values and beliefs, expectations and demands between the young and the elders, males and females, consumers and producers, minorities and majorities, conservatives and liberals, haves and have nots, ethnically or racially different subgroups, and between those with more authoritarian and more democratic postures toward community life and education.

As the district teams reflected on these trends toward polarization, in the context of the increasing requiredness for interdependence and collaboration, there was an acute recognition of some very important implications for education and for the operation of school systems such as:

(1.) The recognition that differences and conflict must be accepted as normal and to be expected, rather than as anxiety producing and to be repressed.

(2.) Recognition that out of the interaction of differences and the acceptance of pluralism as a resource can come the emergence of significant new solutions to problems.

(3.) A recognition that understanding and acceptance in dealing with differences must become much more a part of the curriculum for the young and for the teachers and parents.

(4.) A recognition that to an increasing degree all leaders must learn to utilize the third-party role in the creative coping with many types of conflict.

(5.) The roles of mediator, conciliator, listener, fact finder, etc., must be used much more actively as a creative part of conflict resolution and utilization.

Trend 4: "Changing Life Styles and Values"

Almost all studies of the future comment on the current trend toward the reexamination and reorientation of the values of achieve-

ment and long-time commitment. Many of the younger generation and an increasing number of the older are dramatically changing their priorities about the importance of economic success, upward mobility in occupational status, and a life-time commitment to certain occupational roles. The same type of orientation is manifest in the changing pattern of commitment in male-female relations, and traditional patterns of family life and child rearing. New styles include: both parents working and child care taken over by one of the many types of new child-care facilities; both parents working half time and taking responsibility for household and child care the other half time on a mutual basis; the great increase of unmarried living arrangements of many types including various patterns of communal living and sharing of child care. These, of course, are only a small sample of the great variety of changes in life style which must be understood and related to by educators in the school system.

As the school district teams reflected on these types of trends and images of the future, they explored such implications as:

(1.) The development of more professional jobs on a part-time basis for both men and women.

(2.) The introduction of more value inquiry, content, and activities into the curriculum to help young people explore the basic questions of life, values, and personal identity.

(3.) Relating without negative evaluative judgments to the various styles of family life and child care of those who have children in the schools.

(4.) Recognizing that probably a wider variety of learning experiences, each of a shorter duration (e.g., several weeks rather than a total term) may be an important adaptation to the new orientations.

Trend 5: "The Great Increase in Human and Humane Service Needs"

The reaction to and rejection of depersonalizing experiences, of being treated as a number instead of a person, as part of the mass rather than as an individual, is already strong and will become much stronger. The research on individual differences continues to stress the importance of the individualization of instruction and is providing different kinds of educational programs for optional choices, and to meet different problems of interest, development, and competence. But it is also recognized by many studies that although there is the great increase in the recognition of the need for, and the demand for, individualization of services there is also a lack of any increase in the economic base to support the type of increase of professional and technical services which would seem to be required to provide for this individualization.

As our participants and consultants reflected on this trend, the following types of implications emerged:

(1.) The only creative way available to cope with this situation would seem to be the great expansion of the use of volunteers and

part-time paid aides working under the leadership of skilled professionals.

(2.) There is evidence that the training of older students to teach younger students has great educational advantage for both the olders and the youngers and is another approach to meeting the needs for individualization of service and for individualization of enrichment of opportunities for learning.

(3.) The great general increase in human service needs across all sectors of society means that according to many estimates, by 1980 as much as 75% of the jobs in society will be human service jobs as contrasted to servicing, working to, and relating to things and machines.

(4.) This means that there is a tremendous need for changing the curriculum of learning experiences for children and youth to give them an opportunity to explore and experience the various types of occupational options in the human service area.

(5.) This is particularly relevant to thinking about a wide variety of community learning experiences as part of curriculum, which again indicates the need for the great increase in involvement of the citizens in various parts of the community as part of the educational team.

Trend 6: "The Increasing Discretionary Time and Energy Available for Non-Breadwinning Activity"

Almost all studies of the future predict that there will be a continuing and accelerated increase in the time people will have available to decide at their own discretion how to use, because it is time not needed to earn a living and maintain a household.

As the district educational development teams discussed this trend they developed such implication ideas as:

(1.) The challenge for educators of attracting their "fair share" of this time and energy as volunteer human resources to enrich the educational program of the school system.

(2.) It is clear that volunteer work in the school can be much more rewarding and supportive of personal development than most other types of volunteer time if the program of volunteerism is appropriately organized and volunteers are adequately trained and supported on the job.

(3.) The importance of providing all pupils and students with the orientation to the importance of volunteer roles in society and providing them with meaningful and exciting opportunities to volunteer in the community, as well as in the school, as part of the learning program.

(4.) The importance of organizing a coordinated volunteer recruiting and utilization program for the school system which includes assigned responsibility for the coordination of volunteerism, for the development of the necessary training programs for volunteers, which

in many cases are conducted by trained teams of volunteers working as trainers.

This is only a small sample of the many implications which can be derived from this sample of six trends as a springboard for innovative educational planning which is in line with best judgments about what some of the major images of the future are in the area of educational development and programming.

For a further development of these images of the future derived from studies of the future, we recommend Chapters 2 and 3 of The Volunteer Community.*

SOME WAYS OF USING THE MATERIAL IN THIS CHAPTER FOR PARTICIPATIVE WORK IN SCHOOL-COMMUNITY GROUPS

A very excellent start-up activity for parent advisory committees, or for planning committees, or boards of education, or school-community groups is to review the statements of trends such as those in this chapter, and either as a group or as subgroups of two or three each taking one trend to derive implication statements of what seem to them to be some of the most important implications for the development of the school program, or for development of school-community relations of this particular trend is taken seriously as a basis for deriving implications.

Another activity is to start with several trends of the kinds given here and ask the members of the group to list illustrations of this particular trend that they see currently and then to move to thinking about implications for planning and for the future of the particular trend or trends.

Another type of use of this chapter is to use it as a mind-stretching springboard for then going into the activity described later in this booklet called "images of potentiality," in which the group goes ahead in time and makes observations of what they see going on a year from now, or two years from now, in the relations between the school and the community, or between teachers and parents, or whatever focus of observation you want to use, which pleases them very much with the progress that has been made. These observations are made in the present tense; in other words the participants are there one year or two years ahead making observations in the present tense of what they see happening that pleases them about the movement into the future of their school system in regard to the kinds of activities which have been suggested or stimulated by the earlier reading of the materials on trends. For a further development of this technique of taking a trip into the future as a procedure for planning for movement into the future, you are referred to a recent book.**

*The Volunteer Community: Creative Utilization of Human Resources, Eva Schindler-Rainman and Ronald Lippitt (Fairfax, Virginia: NTL-Learning Resources Corporation, 1971).

**Toward A Humane Society: Images of Potentiality, Robert Fox, Ronald Lippitt and Eva Schindler-Rainman (Fairfax, Virginia: NTL-Learning Resources Corporation, 1973).

CHAPTER III – COLLABORATION FOR COMMUNITY-WIDE EDUCATION

There are many different groups and organizations in every community besides the school system which have various types of responsibilities and commitments and programs for the rearing, protection, welfare, recreation, and health of the young. Most of these groups and organizations have defined their own "turfdoms," i.e., their areas of special interest which they promote, develop, and protect as does the school system. Here is a sample of the child and youth-concerned, vested interest groups in one community as listed by a workshop group:

Welfare organizations such as family services, big brother, aid to dependent children, etc.

Public safety and corrections interests such as police, juvenile court judges, juvenile protection, etc.

Economic interest groups such as companies interested in employing or providing economic education for the young, and labor organizations interested in the education, orientation of the young.

Neighborhood groups such as housing project committees and programs.

Religious groups such as church, school, and youth programs.

Recreation groups such as YMCA, YWCA, Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, etc.

Educational institutions such as school system, community college, private schools, consumer education programs, etc.

Delivery of health service programs such as mental health facilities, public health education programs, children's hospitals, drug education projects, etc.

Cultural programs and facilities such as museums, children's theater, youth symphony, etc.

Political parties and city administration interested in the political orientation and education of the young.

This is a very incomplete list of the variety of agencies and organizations in any community that have the welfare, education and health of the young as one of their primary purposes and have professional workers trained and delegated to develop and conduct programs to influence the lives of the young members of the community. One of the most important implications of recognizing this community of interest in the rearing and educating of the young for the school administrator is to recognize that he has a variety of peer administrators in a community with whom he needs to collaborate if the welfare and educational needs of the young are to be given genuine priority and coordination of service efforts is to be achieved.

As one participant in the workshop posed the challenge: "Then

how can the school system leadership take initiative to establish better collaboration without being seen as dominating and as empire building?" Several suggestions emerged from the workshop discussions:

(1.) Don't hold the meetings of the child-concerned community leaders in the school building; meet in other settings of the community.

(2.) If feasible, get several leaders, including the school administrators, to convene the sessions rather than having the school be the sole convener.

(3.) Don't pose the questions for the agenda of discussion as "how can the community help the school do a better job?" but rather "how can we do a more effective job of coordinating or merging our efforts in the interest of improving the education, welfare and growth of children and youth?"

(4.) The school administrators need to use opportunities to move out of the school system into the community to observe, relate to, and interact with other community programs in their own institutional contexts.

(5.) The school needs to demonstrate its interest in collaborating with other community programs by providing opportunities and facilities for other programs to utilize school facilities for joint program activities (e.g., drug education, sex education, exploration of employment opportunities, etc.)

(6.) It was recognized that very often the volunteer laymen who make up the decision-making boards of the various agencies and organizations of the community including the school system, may have an easier time communicating with each other and relating with each other than the professional leadership. Therefore we suggested that one of the important considerations was the providing of opportunities for the policy-making board members of different agencies and organizations to make contact with each other and explore common program needs and problems.

SOME SAMPLES OF START-UP PROJECTS TOWARD TWO-WAY COLLABORATION

None of the school districts in the workshop reported successful designs for start-up collaboration with other organizations and institutions of the community, but several expressed the feeling that this was a very important and neglected priority and that it would be important to discover some procedures for successfully initiating this kind of activity.

EXAMPLES OF SCHOOL-COMMUNITY COLLABORATION

The workshop consultants reported a number of successful designs which had been used by other school districts and communities. Here are some paragraph thumbnail sketches of these designs which could be developed as follow-up steps from the workshop if a school administrator team becomes interested in this kind of action.

Example 1: The school administrator, with the help of the consultant, used a nomination technique to identify key leaders, both professional and policy-making laymen, in seven different sectors of community life to come together for an initial session to explore interest in jointly sponsoring an "educational community conference." The ad hoc planning committee of seven nominated about 75 key persons in the community who gave policy and program leadership to the various activities related to child and youth education, health, welfare, employment, recreation, etc. The one-day conference started with heterogeneous table groups of eight. Each table group took a trip into the future to observe what was happening to children and youth in the community and what was happening to collaboration between parts of the community that made them pleased with the progress of the community toward improving the quality of life and education and development for children and youth. These "images of potentiality" were shared, and priorities were defined as common interests. Then ad hoc task forces were established cutting across agencies and interest groups to explore ways of implementing more coordination and collaboration in the interests of children, youth, and families. A variety of agencies provided secretarial service, meeting places, and shared the costs of consultation to keep this process moving vigorously and to deal with issues of competition and turfdom which emerged during the early working through phases of this community-wide focus on the education of the young.

Example 2: A second example was reported in which the focus for the development of collaboration was a particular problem which many different agencies and organizations had a concern about, for example drug education, occupational training and employment, or the involvement of young people in the training and supervision of younger ones in all programs in the community. Again in these examples a small ad hoc planning committee was stimulated by the school leadership and became the planning group to work with the technical consultants on designing and implementing a significant workshop-conference program to involve the significant interests in the community. This model came up with a coordinating committee mechanism which received support from the United Way to be a continuing secretariat and coordinator of training activities and program information for the community.

Example 3: In another community context a group in the school system and a group involved in adult education, initiated a sponsoring committee which provided the impetus for planning and for invitation of all the professionals and volunteer leaders in the community who had an interest in developing the concept of a total community education plan for education "from womb to tomb." In other words the assumption was that the focus would not just be on children and youth, but on all educational needs and functions of the community where paraprofessionals and laymen were involved in planning and implementing educational activities of all kinds.

In all of these successful designs there was the initiation of an ad hoc, non-school focused planning committee, initiated by school leader-

ship but not dominated by them, as the ad hoc planning committee became the leadership force with school district leadership as just one of the members of such a planning unit. All the projects started with the assumption that looking ahead to what we would like to have happen as the outcome of cooperative effort in the interests of children and youth, or of education in the community, was a common feature of these projects. In other words it was possible to start out by finding out "common cause" in desired outcomes before looking at the sometimes difficult problems of collaboration and of giving up certain types of traditional sovereignty. Another common characteristic of these projects was attention to the issues of communication and of the interaction process which need to be paid attention to if the work is to proceed successfully. In other words it is important to look openly at the issues of tradition, of the temptations to non-collaboration, the suspicion of one or another institution as having hidden agendas, and concerns about visibility in the community.

It seems clear that it is natural and of vital importance for the school to initiate action toward coordination and collaboration of community interests concerned about the education and welfare of the young. It is clear that this leadership can be exerted without activating the distrust and suspicion about "empire building" or "monopoly." The pooling of the efforts and dollars of public and private programs and organizations is feasible and will become increasingly important to the success of community education programs.

APPLYING SOME OF THESE IDEAS

If any of the educational leadership who are readers of this report want to explore first steps toward initiating the kinds of activities outlined here, we suggest the following possibilities:

(1.) Share a copy of this pamphlet with two or three of your most active colleagues and leaders in other youth-serving, youth-educating organizations of the community and get together for a lunch discussion with them about interest in some kinds of ad hoc start-up activity.

(2.) Share this pamphlet with one or more members of the school board calling their attention to this particular chapter and follow-up with a conversation about their reactions to the need for doing something in this area.

(3.) Check with your school administrators, building principals, and others, to discover how many are connected with other youth-serving interests of the community such as churches, social and recreational agencies, etc. Invite them to discuss with you ideas for start-up conversations through these linkages.

(4.) Ask a consultant who has experience in this field to meet with you and your administrative council, or your school board, to discuss alternative approaches to school-community relations in order to open up this area of discussion.

CHAPTER IV – SCHOOL ADVISORY COMMITTEES

DEFINITION

When considering the nature of a school advisory committee, it is important to consider the definition of such a committee. For example, many terms are used that would fit under a category called "school advisory committee," i.e., we hear the term study committee, liaison committee, executive committee, and advisory committee. It is important to clearly define the nature and purpose of a school advisory committee. In that way those who participate on such a committee will have a clearer understanding of their tasks and functions.

REASONS FOR EXISTENCE

There are a variety of needs and purposes for a school advisory committee. Also there are a variety of tasks and functions associated with fulfilling the purposes of an advisory committee.

Some possible purposes for an advisory committee are:

(1.) To help solve problems such as problems related to the school curriculum, to school financing, to organization of student government, or to use by community members of the school facility.

(2.) To assist in dealing with differences in the community or in the school. Often we find that advisory committees bring a broader perspective to dealing with issues that arise in connection with the operation of the school or problems involving the school in the community.

(3.) To enlist support of the community at large for a particular project or program. Often school programs fail because there is not broad-based support on the part of community members for that program or project.

(4.) To offer opportunity for individuals in the community to provide feedback on a variety of community concerns. In many communities there does not exist a mechanism through which concerned citizens can express views, ideas, challenges related to the school.

One group in the workshop wanted to involve members from a variety of community groups and organizations to help plan a public meeting. They got the support of the superintendent, and obtained school board approval and support for the public meeting. Their plan included making contact via personal letters to individuals in the community asking them to form a planning committee for the public meeting. Also included in their plans was the opportunity for the planning group and others to participate in a practice run of the community meeting to iron out imperfections and to make any necessary changes. This is one possible way a community advisory committee can help advise on immediate problems.

WAYS TO RECRUIT

There are a number of ways to recruit individual volunteers within the community to serve in advisory capacities.

One way is for a school official to seek out through personal contact those whom he thinks can best give assistance. This means is probably best for selecting those in the community who have been identified as having expertise in a certain area.

Another way is to identify those agencies or groups within the community who have some interest in education and ask the group to appoint a volunteer for a particular advisory function. For example, service groups such as the Kiwanis, the Lions Club, the Rotary usually have educational subcommittees. Individuals who serve on these subcommittees are often available for advisory functions to the school.

One way to involve those who are uninvolved is to institute a progressive nomination system. For example, five individuals could be asked to nominate five others whom they think should be involved and who are not currently involved. The five individuals nominated could then be contacted personally and be asked to suggest others who might become involved.

One group with whom we worked had planned an initial public meeting. The purpose of this public meeting was to provide information about a new school program; the information was to be presented in such a way that it was merely suggestive of possible directions that the program could take. As an integral component of the meeting, sign-up sheets were provided at the end of the meeting so that those who were interested in working with the planning committee could be recruited as an advisory committee right then and there.

COMPOSITION

When recruiting an advisory committee it is important to consider the composition of that committee. For example some questions to consider include:

Should the group be homogeneous or heterogeneous?

Whether a liberal or conservative spectrum of the community should be represented?

Whether the committee should include representatives from various age levels in the community (e.g., youngers, olders)?

Whether there should be a distribution according to sex?

Whether there should be representatives of political pressure groups?

Whether prospective members should be invited because of special expertise?

SIZE

Another important consideration is the size of the advisory

committee, and size should be related to the stated purposes and tasks of the committee. It is helpful to assign tasks to individuals or subgroups within the committee. Total size must also be related to the frequency of meetings, and the geography of the area served.

COMMITTEE FUNCTIONS

Clearly, the functions of the committee should be directly related to the task at hand or the problem to be solved, or the issue to be confronted. One issue that very often arises is how the task is determined. One pitfall to effective committee functions is to have the task assigned by an outside group or an outside individual. One effective way to have committees perform in a useful fashion is to have shared determination of purpose, planning of tasks, and shared assignment of functions.

For example, the issues to be dealt with may be briefly stated at a first meeting of the committee. Following this there can be a solicitation of ideas on how the committee might develop its series of tasks and an organizational structure in order to implement its plans.

A couple of ideas to keep in mind is that committee tasks should be manageable, that is, given the time limitations, given the resources available to the committee, the task should be able to be done within these time constraints through effective use of the available resources.

Another consideration is to provide a mechanism for keeping records of what happens in advisory committee sessions. Very often the good work of advisory committees remains hidden from the public.

SUPPORT

Below we offer a list of suggestions for providing support for an advisory committee.

(1.) It is important that committee members have a share in planning the organization and function of the committee

(2.) Committee meetings need to be well planned with a purpose and conducted at agreed-upon times and at regular intervals.

(3.) The issues considered or the tasks selected must be important and meaningful to those on the committee.

(4.) The committee's efforts should be publicized to various publics in a variety of ways.

(5.) Recognition of the contributions of those working on the committee is very important.

(6.) Tasks need to be clearly defined so that committee members can help select those tasks best suited to them.

RESULTS OF WORK

It is important to consider the number of possible outcomes

that the work of a community advisory committee can have for the school. Among those are:

(1.) Providing a closer link with the community.

(2.) Providing an information channel by which community concerns can be heard.

(3.) Helping solve problems related to the school.

(4.) A number of points of view can be aired, heard, and utilized.

(5.) Alternative courses of action not thought of before can be proposed.

(6.) Awareness of problems that were not thought to be problems within the community can be brought to the attention of those who give help in problem solution.

(7.) A general level of support can be offered for the great variety of school programs.

CHAPTER V – VOLUNTEERS IN THE SCHOOLS

Before we can look at opportunities for volunteering in the school system, it may be well to take a quick glance at some of the changes in volunteerism or in the volunteer world today. These changes have come about since about the year 1965. Before that time volunteers were largely middle class, middle age, white, protestant women. Now volunteers come in all ages, from six to 106, men and women, all economic and life-style backgrounds, from all racial, ethnic, religious, and nationality groups, with different kinds of formal and informal education, and from all parts of the community. What is interesting to note here is that both the opportunities for volunteers and the demand by citizens to volunteer have increased tremendously.*

Not only are all kinds of new people volunteering, but also they are in new places and spaces. There is not a sector of community in which volunteers are not active or, to put it positively: volunteers can be found in the schools, both students and adults volunteering to do a whole variety of tasks, all the way from tutoring to helping in the library, on the playground, and helping with direct teaching; volunteers are also found in probation departments, maximum security prisons, mental health programs, recreation centers, public libraries, both public and private mental hospitals, and other hospitals, in city halls, in state government, in zoos, in the museum, working with their politcal parties, in churches, and so on, and so on.

It can now also be said that volunteers are a vital part of federal, state, and local government, as well as of many institutions, organizations, and agencies in both the public and private sectors.

This expansion in opportunities for volunteer service is in part due to the fact that citizens are asking for more humane individualized human services. Since professionals cannot spread themselves any thinner than they already have, much of the extension of services must be done through volunteers in concert with professionals. This has led to another new development known as the human service team.

Human service teams may be made up of a professional, such as a teacher, a paraprofessional or a paid aide, and several volunteers. Sometimes these teams are interdisciplinary, like the teacher, a school psychologist, the speech pathologist, and a volunteer. But whatever the combination it is one which is made up of a complex variety of human skills and resources to hopefully deal better with the complexity of problems that they encounter.

Before we go any further, it should be said that "volunteer" here means any human being serving society or its institutions and giving of

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*The Volunteer Community: Creative Utilization of Human Resources, Eva Schindler-Rainman and Ronald Lippitt (Fairfax, Virginia: NTL-Learning Resources Corporation, 1971).

his or her ideas, ideals, resources, knowledge, and skill without monetary compensation for these services. It is true that at times volunteers get reimbursed for expenses, such as transportation, babysitting, lunches, registration fees at conferences, but these reimbursements in no way pay for services. They do make it possible to offer equal opportunity to volunteer to people regardless of their economic situation.

The paraprofessional or aide is a person who does not have, usually, a professional education, but is a person who is paid for his or her services, often by the hour, but at any rate not at a professional rate.

School volunteerism has been increasing at a very rapid rate during the last ten years. Many school districts have school volunteer programs. They vary in size all the way from 13,000 tutors and volunteers in the Los Angeles school system, to 30 or 40 volunteers in smaller systems.

Both students, within the system and from neighboring universities, as well as adults of all ages, serve as volunteers in schools. They vary in their duties all the way from being specific resources in areas such as photography, woodworking, modern dance, painting, etc., to helping in the classroom with reading, math, the language arts, with English as the second language, and other subjects. Some school volunteers do one-to-one tutoring and often older students tutor younger ones. Some volunteers work on the playground, in the principal's office, or in the library.

There is no end to the kinds of tasks volunteers enjoy doing, and are doing competently. The decision on what they do depends on both the interests and resources, skills and knowledge, of the volunteer, as well as on the determination by the school system, the principal, and the teacher as to how volunteers can be of most help.

There are many values to a school volunteer program. These include:

(1.) The freeing of the teacher to work with smaller groups or individual students while the volunteers work with the other students.

(2.) Additional adult models for students.

(3.) Opportunities for school systems to become closer to community citizens.

(4.) Opportunities for citizens to work in and understand their schools.

(5.) School volunteers are excellent community and public relators for school systems and have been known to be the cause for tax overrides that win because of their enthusiasm for what the schools are doing.

(6.) Additional knowledge, resources for youngsters and teachers.

(7.) An opportunity for teachers to test or discuss with another adult who may have different ideas from those of the teacher.

(8.) A vast pool of volunteer resources is available for students in elementary, junior, and high schools.

(9.) Enough experience has now been had in a whole variety of urban and suburban, large, middle and small districts, so that new programs can draw upon the experience of districts that already have school volunteer programs.

(10.) Much literature is now available on these programs.

(11.) There is a national school volunteer association in which the coordinators of volunteers from approximately 450 school systems are active.

Persons from the workshop who attended this interest workshop on volunteers had the following questions:

(1.) How to help volunteers know their jobs and stick within it?

(2.) How to recruit volunteers and where?

(3.) How to screen volunteers?

(4.) How to discharge volunteers?

(5.) How to explain the values of volunteer programs?

(6.) What are the parameters of a volunteer program or volunteer jobs?

(7.) What are the hidden costs?

(8.) Are volunteer programs better than paying aides?

(9.) Should there be a volunteer chairperson?

(10.) What about the dependability of volunteers?

(11.) Is there resistance to volunteers, what kind, why, and how do you handle it?

An effort was made during the workshop to speak to all of these questions, but not necessarily in the order in which they appear above.

WAYS TO RECRUIT VOLUNTEERS

Volunteers may be recruited through various means, these include the following:

(1.) Through children.

(2.) Letters to parents.

(3.) Volunteers recruited by other volunteers for specific jobs.

(4.) Professionals who give volunteer time like retired teachers, social workers, and other people helpers.

(5.) Other retired persons.

(6.) Peer recruitment, one volunteer who recruits others and is trained as a volunteer recruiter.

(7.) Through PTA and concerned parent groups.

(8.) Through professional groups, teacher associations, American Association of University Women.

(9.) Through nominations by teachers or administrators.

(10.) Through the support personnel of the school, the custodians, nurses, and clerical help.

(11.) Through community bulletin boards at markets, churches, the post office, or elsewhere.

(12.) At the local laundromat, bowling alley, or pool hall.

(13.) Through newspaper articles, radio, and TV spots, etc.

(14.) Through the local volunteer bureau or the community action center.

It was generally felt that happy, occupied school volunteers are the best recruiters of new school volunteers.

WAYS TO SCREEN VOLUNTEERS

There are many ways to screen volunteers, these include:

(1.) Group interviews of potential volunteers to discuss with them why they'd like to volunteer, what they'd like to do, and what some of the opportunities are.

(2.) Individual interviews.

(3.) Through the volunteer recruiter who knows whom she or he is recruiting.

(4.) Orientation programs where one gets to know the volunteer and they get to know each other.

(5.) Training programs where teachers, aides, and volunteers together try to figure out the best ways to help youngsters learn.

(6.) A trial period where the volunteer, as well as the teacher, has a chance to see how their working together is working out; this period might be as short as three weeks, or as long as two months, but it should be built into the whole school volunteer contract that there will be stated times when both the volunteer and the person or persons he or she is working with can discuss together how the job is going, what is liked about the job, what it is felt could be improved, and both have a chance to discuss this. Usually, if a volunteer is not working out, he or she knows this, and these kinds of conversation make it possible to say so. Often they screen themselves out. However, most people who want to work in schools seem to be able to make a go of it with some good training and some help from the teacher and/or administrator with whom they are working.

HOW TO DISMISS A VOLUNTEER IF NECESSARY

It has rarely come to pass that a volunteer needs to be dismissed, but there are a number of principles which should be kept in mind.

(1.) The person who recruited the volunteer ought to be in on releasing the volunteer.

(2.) If periodic evaluations are held, then there should have been a warning that if things don't work out, perhaps the volunteer will have to leave.

(3.) When a counseling out meeting is scheduled, it is helpful to have a third party present so that communication between the person who is doing the dismissing and the volunteer is kept clear, on the beam, and as objective as possible.

(4.) It is important to see whether a volunteer who is not successful in one job, might not be successful in another one, thus the suggestion is that sometimes a volunteer can be moved from one job to another from lack of success to success; we are concerned that the program, as well as the person, be taken into consideration when this kind of a serious decision is made.

WHAT SHOULD VOLUNTEERS DO AND NOT DO IN THE SCHOOLS

There is no recipe or one answer to this question, since there ought to be a clear contract between a school system and its volunteers as to what the volunteer has agreed to do and what the school system is expecting the person to do. It should further be considered that in different places with different people, different volunteer jobs are appropriate.

Experience has shown that the best way to arrive at a viable volunteer job description is for the volunteer and the teacher, or the volunteer and the librarian, or the volunteer, the volunteer coordinator and the teacher, or the volunteer, paid aide, and the teacher, as part of the early training, to decide how they can best work together to help youngsters learn better. Some volunteers can really help with teaching reading and would like to, others have skills for helping with dittoes or bulletin boards and prefer that kind of task, others would enjoy reorganizing or helping to reorganize a library.

So the volunteer job should be determined at least in part by the particular talent, skills, and resources of any combination of people who will be working together. This, of course, does not obviate the fact that some school districts have drawn up some particular kinds of jobs they feel are particularly appropriate for volunteers to do. But even within those job descriptions it is good to encourage individual decisions on how best to implement a job in a particular situation with particular individuals.

It might be said here that resistance of professionals to volunteers is decreased immeasurably when the professional and the volunteer work out together the way in which they want to work together, rather than having some kinds of parameters imposed from without. Also it is important to groups like teachers' unions to help evolve a volunteer plan so that they can see that volunteers extend the work of

teachers, and do not replace any paid person. Volunteers can in no way replace or substitute permanently for paid, skilled, highly trained personnel, but they can help those personnel utilize their talents to the maximum, and to maximize the learning opportunities for young people.

WAYS TO ORIENT AND SUPPORT VOLUNTEERS

It is, of course, important that volunteers be oriented to the situation in which they will be working, to the persons with whom they will be working, and to what they might be doing. This process needs to be on-going training before and on the job, and may take place through more formalized workshops and group meetings, or much of it may take place during the conferences between the volunteer and the professionals with whom he or she is working. It is helpful to have a plan that can be likened to in-service education for teachers, but is, indeed, in-service education for volunteers.

There is much material available on what has been done in other districts to help volunteers become oriented and trained to do their jobs. It is also interesting to note that in some districts there is training for the human relations aspect of the volunteer's job, which is separated from training in particular subject matter areas where volunteers help teachers, such as in special education, work with the mentally retarded, teaching reading to the slow reader, etc.

WHAT ARE THE HIDDEN COSTS OF SCHOOL VOLUNTEER PROGRAMS

The costs are really not so hidden, nor are they very high, but in making a budget for a school volunteer program the following items should be considered:

(1.) The cost of training and orientation programs.

(2.) The cost of outside consultant help if it is needed.

(3.) The cost of conferences or workshops to which the volunteer may be asked to go.

(4.) Materials needed—books, pamphlets, etc.

(5.) Budget for volunteer expenses in some cases (including lunch, transportation, etc.).

(6.) The time of the teacher needed to do adequate planning.

(7.) Purchase of additional equipment when volunteers utilize the lounge or the teacher's room (e.g., coffee pots, cups, etc.).

(8.) When a program warrants the cost of a professionally trained and paid volunteer coordinator.

ORGANIZING A VOLUNTEER PROGRAM

It has been found that it is helpful to have a volunteer chairperson or coordinator in each building in which volunteers are placed,

and to have that coordinator work in tandem with a professional person on the staff who is designated to work with the volunteer coordinator by the principal. (It is often the principal.)

In school systems where there are volunteers in many buildings, it has been found that it is very helpful to have a paid volunteer coordinator as part of the central district staff. Often this latter position evolves as a result of volunteers doing a good job, and the growth of the program to more than two or three schools. So far it has been rare for the program to start with a paid coordinator who organizes this, although that may be a preferable way to go. There are now several available training programs in administration of volunteer programs, so that people can be trained to perform the professional volunteer coordinator function.

In closing, it might be said that the evaluation of school volunteer programs both in the United States and Canada, has demonstrated clearly that when such a program is well planned, thought through and organized, children learn better, and teachers have a richer, less frustrating, more creative and productive experience, and professionalism is advanced.

Volunteers who enjoy their jobs are as dependable as are professionals. When a volunteer does not come regularly it is necessary to look not only at the volunteer, but also at the situation in which he or she is working, to determine what the factors are that cause this person to be undependable.

There is, of course, resistance to volunteers, based on both facts and fantasy. Some of this resistance is due to the fact that good volunteers threaten inadequate teachers, or they threaten teachers and administrators who have never worked with volunteers. Also, there is resistance because some people feel that working with volunteers will take a great deal more of their time and time is the one commodity they do not have enough of. It has been found, however, that after the inception of a volunteer program, working with volunteers does, indeed, not only not take more time, but makes the time that one spends in the learning-teaching transaction, much pleasanter.

If you and your district are interested in school volunteer programs, please consult the bibliography for some of the kinds of materials and resources available in this area and contact them directly so that you can find out what others have experienced and what kinds of things they learned in organizing, developing, and expanding programs which encourage the utilization of the talents of volunteers in the modern school.

CHAPTER VI – WORKING WITH DIFFERENCES AND CONFLICTS

It is part of the challenge of modern life to learn the skills and to develop attitudes that help one to deal with conflict in constructive, positive ways. Indeed it has been said that it is necessary to utilize conflict and to see this as a challenge rather than to dampen it and whish it away, or squash it. Pluralism and differences have always been a part of our society, but we are living at a time when we are seeing more clearly the richness of the menu of differences and the value of pluralism. What then are some of the ways to look at differences and conflict. It is most usual to see that in any conflict situation someone will win and someone will lose. Indeed this is part of the American way to expect that there will be winners and losers in every situation. Yet another way to look at it is to say that when there is conflict and difference everyone loses, so this then becomes a lose-lose situation; and there is a third way to look at the utilization of conflict, and that is the idea that there can be a win-win solution, that is that out of differences, out of alternative ways of looking at and dealing with a situation, can come an entirely new way, or new solution, that would never have emerged had there not been conflict.

In our American society we tend to see compromise as a negative thing. We see compromise as a dynamic which is a win-lose one, and therefore the notion of creative compromise is a very foreign one to us. Yet it is an idea and value which other cultures adhere to. The idea of creative compromise is, that out of confrontation, conflict, difference, can come a new solution, a new compromise that is a great deal more creative than any solution would have been if like-minded people had made the decision. There are many ways to utilize conflict, but certainly one of them that is emerging in our modern society is the use of the methodological advocate, that is, a person who acts as a third party mediator and who advocates the method of helping people arrive at a new solution. He or she does not advocate either the cause of side A or B, but rather works on helping A and B see their differences and similarities, and then works on helping them develop a list of alternative solutions hoping that as they develop this list of alternatives they can begin to see a creative compromise emerging.

Workshop participants spent a great deal of time on skill practice of interpersonal situations in which conflict or difference played an important part. In Chapter 1, in the discussion of skill practice, a number of punchlines were quoted. These situations were the ones that participants utilized to try to understand how to handle interpersonal conflict confrontation and difference better than they had been able to previously.

Specific interpersonal techniques were identified and these included the following:

(1.) Congruent verbal and non-verbal communication. It was felt

that when somebody is sincere, and this comes through both verbally and non-verbally, he can influence the confronter better than when he or she is not sincere and this gets communicated either verbally and/or non-verbally through body language.

(2.) The need for the establishment of an open, receptive atmosphere. The suggestion here was that both the personal interactions, as well as the physical surroundings, can either establish an open or closed or hostile situation in which to work out differences. This included a look at the seating arrangements so that there is not a desk or a table between two persons who are discussing a difference, or indeed two persons who are discussing anything. It was also felt that color, coffee, and other amenities may help in the physical situation to make it more comfortable and open. To establish open, personal, or human relation it was suggested that it is necessary to hear the feelings of the confronter and respond to them, as well as hearing the facts or the content. It was suggested that "feelings are facts" and need to be dealt with so that the confronter can feel that the person who is listening at least understands and empathizes to some extent rather than that he or she is judging all the way.

(3.) Encouraging options and alternative solutions. This might be done by brainstorming together all the ways in which we could handle a particular situation, or it might be done by listing options that are available and then taking a look at which one or ones fit a particular situation. It was also felt that sometimes calling in additional people to help look at alternatives may be a way to encourage this kind of activity.

(4.) The use of third-party mediators. This has already been discussed above, that is, the notion of someone who is not involved in the conflict who might become the methodological advocate. It is necessary to be sure that both parties agree that such a third party is needed, and it also helps to have them agree on the person who might do this job.

(5.) Meet on neutral turf. The suggestion here is that sometimes meeting in one or the other person's office or home may not be as helpful as meeting someplace that does not belong to either party.

(6.) Using the idea of creative compromise so that a solution can emerge that is better than anything either party has thought of so far.

(7.) Use of the group interview technique to get out individual differences among group members if the confrontation or conflict involves a group.

(8.) The use of the value dialogue technique. This is a technique in which a controversial value statement that has meaning to the group is selected to work on.

For example, recently in a high school in which there was a great deal of interracial tension and friction, the following statement was used in a conflict utilization workshop: "Problems of relations between

the races have been over-emphasized in this school." Participants were then asked to walk to one of four stations, which were marked as follows: "Agree Very Much," meaning agree very much with that statement; "Agree More Than I Disagree"; "Disagree More Than I Agree"; and "Disagree Very Much."

The whole group was pretty equally divided between these four value positions. Discussion groups were then formed by taking two people from each of the four positions, that is, then, eight people from each group and asking them to discuss this value statement with the following instructions: to listen very carefully to comments made by the other seven members; and to try to influence as hard as they could the other members of their group in relation to their point of view. These discussions allowed people to listen to points of view different from their own and yet did not force them to change their minds. However, at the end of an hour's discussion, people were more open to looking at the racial confrontations in this particular school.

(9.) Strategize the timing of your move or moves. Be sure that strategies are thought through in terms of when, where, and how it would be best to make the next move. Sometimes this means acting very quickly and swiftly, other times it means waiting for informal opportune moments; but timing was felt to be a key factor in handling conflict.

(10.) Have each side put their major points on audio tape, that is, have each side in the conflict meet separately and put the major points they wish to make, or the major suggestions they have, on an audio tape cassette. This should not be much longer than eight to ten minutes. Then have the third party mediator or someone agreed upon, bring the tape from side A over to side B, and bring B's tape to A. Have each side listen to the other's tape, and come up with ideas of how to handle the position of the other side. Then when they are ready to meet together, have the two sides come together thusly prepared.

(11.) Try to avoid defensive postures, that is, the person being confronted whenever possible should try to hear the confronter or confronters as clearly as possible, and not defend his point of view, but rather try to communicate it in a way that then can be heard by the other side.

(12.) Include the confronter or confronters in the planning of strategies rather than excluding them. For example, at a recent meeting of educators two people felt strongly that the meeting had not been designed to meet their requests, interests, and needs. They were invited to have dinner with the planning committee so that they could help design and strategize the second day of the meeting. They were very helpful, the design was changed but also they became useful participants of the process instead of continuing to be confronters.

(13.) Carefully diagnose the situation so that you know where people are rather than where you think people should be.

(14.) Equalize power differences, that is, when there is a group in which you have very powerful people, high status people such as the superintendent or the president of the board, and then teachers, parents, and students, it would be important to have two or three students and several parents, so that they could draw support from one another, rather than trying to be the one confronter of the top power people. Incidentally, often negative motives are ascribed to those in power positions where this may or may not be real, but if a top position is conceived as being one of negative influence, that perception needs to be treated as a fact, and dealt with accordingly.

(15.) Watch the "conflict games" people play. These include the self-fulfilling prophecy, for example that someone is hostile and always makes trouble, and therefore you treat him that way, even when he doesn't; the defensive postures; the lack of listening; the unwillingness to hear opposition; the flight syndrome, like taking flight from unpleasant situations; the wishing-it-away; there are a whole series of ways in which people play the conflict games, and it is important to be aware of that so one does not fall prey to it.

Obviously, these are only some of the techniques and methods that can be used in difficult conflict situations. As you read this and apply them to your own situation, you might begin by saying:

(1.) What other techniques have we used around here that work?

(2.) What kinds of conflict situations do we have that we could role play and try to handle better than we've handled them so far?

(3.) Make a list of all the consequences of really handling and strategizing conflict situations and then a list of the consequences if you do not handle the conflict situations.

(4.) See if you can find examples where any of the points made above and add to the ways in which you might use them in your own situation in your own system.

CHAPTER VII – SOME APPROACHES TO TACKLING THE CHALLENGE OF SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS

If change teams, organizations, committees, and other group configurations are to remain viable they must have means for obtaining maintenance of the group or organization and for continuing support. In addition, it is generally considered important that any group have some means for additional training and self-renewal. Very often we find that when groups leave a skill laboratory or workshop they are all fired up to put plans developed in the workshop into action. However, sometimes they run into unanticipated problems, or they discover new and better ideas they can incorporate into their plans. Unless some support mechanism is established, it is very difficult for a workshop formed group to maintain and support itself for a long period of time. We identified six possibilities for team maintenance and support during the two-day laboratory. They are:

(1.) Establishing a local clearinghouse.

(2.) Maintaining access to consultants.

(3.) Conducting start-up sessions.

(4.) Conducting a reunion meeting.

(5.) Designing for professional development.

(6.) Designing for school/community development.

ESTABLISHING A LOCAL CLEARINGHOUSE

As conceived, the Allegheny Intermediate Unit could serve in a leadership capacity toward the establishment of a clearinghouse. The clearinghouse functions would be threefold:

(1.) Developing a human resource pool.

(2.) Developing a means of sharing detailed plans and practices.

(3.) Developing a means of reporting results.

It was suggested to the Intermediate Unit support staff that one first step would be to publish a directory with names, addresses, and phone numbers of teams and team members, as well as resource staff. Next steps would include follow-up by the Allegheny Intermediate Unit staff to determine additional needs of teams as they begin to implement their plans. In many cases it was felt that the Intermediate Unit staff could assist teams on the spot. Those questions that could not be answered by the Intermediate Unit staff could be referred to the consultant staff personally, in writing, and/or via a telephone conference.

The Intermediate Unit staff could develop a reporting system for sharing of detailed plans and practices. For example, when a team had a critical meeting, the design for and the results of that meeting could be written down and shared with other teams participating in the lab. If a

team was having trouble in developing detailed plans, it would be possible to refer to successful practices used by other teams in the area. It might also be useful to invite a member of a successful team to participate with a team working on plans in order to take advantage of the expertise gained.

Very often we find in education a lack of systematic reporting of results of plans made. As a consequence, we discover that many valuable resources are lost in the process of change. Thus, it was suggested that each team commit itself to writing up the results of whatever action plan that team decided to undertake, and to continue to supplement these results with additional information. At a time deemed appropriate, these results could be reported by the Intermediate Unit to other teams in the area.

MAINTAINING ACCESS TO CONSULTANTS

There were two possible suggestions for maintaining access to the outside consultants, and a number of suggestions for maintaining a link to the staff of the Intermediate Unit. The first suggestion was to mail written plans to the consultants for a critique which might be sent back by audio-tape to the requesting team. Interestingly, the day following the workshop, one team came in with a detailed plan and worked with one of the outside consultants for two hours in smoothing out details, design flow, etc., for a planned public meeting. Another possibility that was suggested was to conduct telephone consultation with both the outside consultants and with the Intermediate Unit staff. The purpose of the telephone consultation would be to iron out specific problems encountered in planning. Both the critique of written plans, as well as telephone consultation, serve to give needed support for a team planning some kind of action program.

CONDUCTING A START-UP SESSION

It was suggested that in order to maintain the enthusiasm that was started and to extend the skill development to other school districts, that a half-day professional development event be conducted in June or early September for potential participating school superintendents. The development event would be designed as a participatory experience in helping superintendents examine their leadership roles in community relations, in staff team building, and in helping superintendents in developing the kind of team that they might recruit for another development event at a later date. This kind of start-up session would enable the participating superintendents to experience the kinds of things that would happen in a larger professional development event and to begin to think about some new directions for their own school districts.

CONDUCTING FOLLOW-UP SESSIONS

It was felt by both staff and participating teams that a follow-up

meeting would be appropriate later in the school year or at the beginning of the next school year. That meeting, which might take one day, would involve systematic reporting of:

(1.) Things that were tried successfully and recommendations for ingredients for successful change.

(2.) Things that were tried and were not successful and a list of possible reasons why the things were not successful.

(3.) Next steps on obtaining help for future work.

Another possibility for maintaining support for participating teams is to identify individuals in districts who would be willing and able to help others who participated in the workshop. For example, one school district may have gone a long way down the road in planning a program and had successes, and could be called upon to assist another district in planning for change. In this way one district person acts as an "outside consultant" teaming with an "inside team" in planning for change.

Another possibility is that teams across districts can work together to:

(1.) Influence others who may be resisting change.

(2.) To share experiences and practices.

(3.) Conduct various kinds of events which might be needed for other teachers, other administrators, or volunteers within the school community.

DESIGNING FOR PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT AND FOR SCHOOL/COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

The kind of professional development training depends on an organization's needs, as well as the needs of the individuals serving the organization and the needs of the clients being served by the organization. Important notions to be considered in preparing training plans include the amount of time the professional or the volunteer can spend on the activity; the task that needs to be accomplished; the professional's or the volunteer's expressed needs; the relevant experience that both professionals and volunteers have had in other situations; the goals of the organization; the trainer's ideas; and other past experiences.

It is extremely important to think through the training needs and who needs to be involved in planning the training. Very often we find that planning for training has occurred without the participation of those involved in the training. Thus, high levels of resistance occur as needs are not met and there is often a "laying on" of someone else's trip.

There are a variety of training models available. (See footnote on The Volunteer Community and Towards a Humane Society.) Our

general suggestion is to focus training on tasks that need to be accomplished. Means of conducting training might be simulations, role play, conferences where small discussion groups can provide for sharing of ideas, and so on. It is particularly useful in any training model to consider the various means to actively involve those undergoing training in the training session, and to give them realistic skill practice in what they will be doing later.

CHAPTER VIII – TOOLS FOR ACTION: CREATING COMMUNITY SUPPORT FOR EDUCATIONAL CHANGE

In Chapter 1 we discussed the activities, content, and general design of the workshop. It is our purpose in this chapter to offer specific tools which we developed that you might use or adapt in your own work.

TOOL 1: THE GREETING SHEET

As discussed in Chapter 1, the reasons for beginning with a greeting sheet were three-fold:

(1.) To enable participants who arrive at various times to begin immediately in an informal atmosphere

(2.) To offer participants who do not know each other to become acquainted

(3.) To enable participants to discuss questions of interest to them which relate to the content of the workshop

An example of the greeting sheet used on the first day is shown below.

A similar greeting sheet was used on the second day. The task given on the sheet was to ask the participants to sit with their teams and to discuss and list the first steps they could take to implement their back-home plans.

TOOL 2: IMAGE OF POTENTIALITY EXERCISE

One of the most powerful forces for change is the basic human motivation to close the gap between "what might be" and "what now is." Some may call this the aspiration to leave the world a little better than when we entered it.

Often our dreams of what might be are significant guideposts for what, in the best of all possible worlds, would we actually like to have happen. So, we can put aside our problems and dream a little bit.

We begin by focusing on our image of what we would like ourselves or our group to be doing a year, or two, or three, from now. We imagine we are on a flying carpet or in a helicopter looking down at ourselves or our group from the air. We're observing what is happening. Based on our observations we begin to form images of the future, of ourselves, and our group.

In projecting our images of the future, we might answer the following questions:

What do we see happening?

What am I doing that pleases me?

What are others doing as a result of my efforts?

Some of the images that we project may be more exciting to us than others. To begin on force-field analysis, we try to select one image that we find most exciting.

Our images of the future are often our images of goals; that is, the hoped for results of activities that we have planned. For example, if your image had to do with more participation of community people in school programs, your goal might be stated: To bring about greater participation of community people in the curriculum program in my school.

In order to determine action strategies to achieve our goal, it is important to make the goal as clear, concise, and specific as possible. To do this, we must state it in such a way that we can know that it has been achieved; that is, the goal must be measurable.

We must also set a beginning and ending time for accomplishing the goal; that is, the goal must be time-phased.

Most of all, the goal should be realistic, it should be something that we stand a good chance of achieving. If it would be pushing our luck or would be something very difficult to achieve in the time allotted, we should re-evaluate the goal. Often, we should amend it, clarify it further, or not even tackle it at all.

An example of a goal statement which meets these qualifications might be: To have five community lay persons working with each of five classes for two hours a day, each starting in six weeks and continuing the rest of the school year.

The next step then, is to write down our refined goal statement.

TOOL 3: FORCE-FIELD DIAGNOSIS

In any situation we want to change, there is a balance of forces at work. On the one hand, there are driving forces—(helps or resources)—which help us move the situation in the direction of the goal or anticipated change. On the other hand, there are restraining forces—(blocks)—which tend to resist change and work to keep the situation from moving in the direction of the goal.

The next step, then, is to list all of the helps or resources that we feel will help us to move toward our goal. Then we list all the blocks we can think of that will prevent us from reaching that goal. In doing this listing we should not be selective, we should jot down everything that comes to mind.

The dynamic set of forces at work in any situation will tend to stabilize themselves. It is possible to cause change by increasing the strength of the forces which are pressing for change—(the driving forces). However, when we increase the pressure for change, we sometimes find that the blocks to action—(the restraining forces)—also increase resistance. Therefore, it is often more effective to diminish the strength of one or more of the blocks to change, allowing the resources for change to tip the scales in a positive direction toward the goal.

In planning for action, then, we might choose one block—(one restraining force)—that we feel we can do something about. The next step is to list all of the possible things we might be able to do to diminish the strengths of the block (the restraining force we selected).

The next step is to select one or several of the action ideas we have listed to begin on. After we select the idea or ideas, it is necessary to become very specific about which steps to take. We might answer the following questions:

Who else needs to work on this?

Where do we begin?

How do we begin?

Who does what to get it started?

The exact idea we choose will no doubt involve others whose opinions, values, and expectations are influential. Therefore, we need to be well aware of what the sociologists call "significant others." They could be members of our family, members of our organization, a school principal, the mayor, another group or organization, etc.

TOOL 3

FORCE FIELD ANALYSIS

Goal: To develop, within the next six months, a program for use of at least 10 parent volunteers in our school so that teachers feel the parent contributions are helpful, and parents appreciate the opportunity to help.

Driving Forces →	← Restraining Forces
Self	
A good parent volunteer program is the mark of a good school.	I don't know very many of our parents.
I'd like to know more of the parents.	It may take a lot of my time.
Significant Others	
Some members of school board have expressed an interest in a parent volunteer program.	The superintendent has not expressed a position on the idea.
Institutional	
Bear Creek School has implemented such a program.	Concern by some teachers that volunteers are not dependable.
etc.	etc.

TOOL 3

WORKSHEET

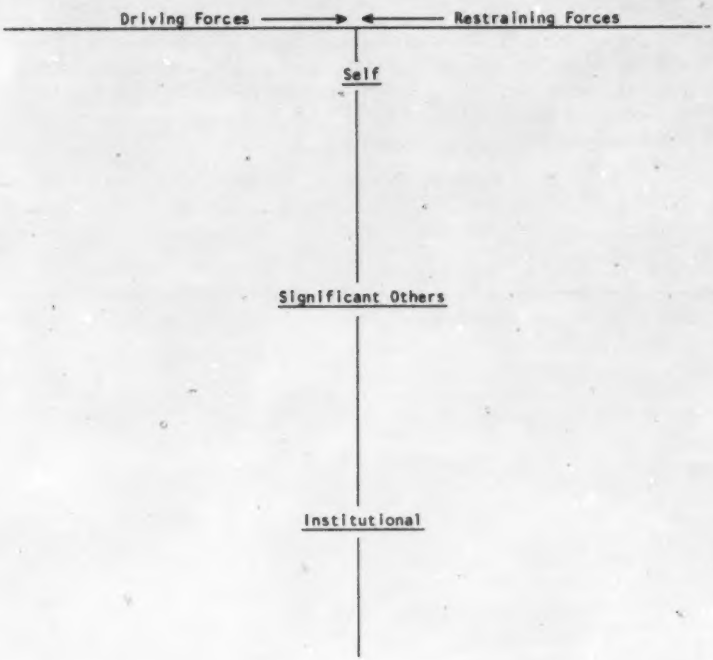
FORCE FIELD ANALYSIS

Your stated goal: _____

_____

_____

_____



TOOL 4: ACTION PLAN

Once we have an action idea, and ideas for sharing the support we need for carrying out the action idea, the details of implementation may be developed. The next step, then, is to put down in writing what has to be done, who will do it, when, where, and how.

The last step has to do with evaluating the progress toward achieving our goal and affective change. To evaluate our progress in achieving our goal, we need to take a look at our goal as we stated it earlier, and compare it with where we are after we have completed our action plan. Here are some helpful steps:

(1.) Look at the measurable part of the goal

(2.) Judge how close we are to achieving that measurable part.

(3.) Look at the time-phase part of the goal.

(4.) How close are we to the time limits we set?

(5.) Has the removal of the block (restraining force) made it possible to achieve the goal? If not, we can go back to our earlier steps, look over the list of blocks and choose another block or restraining force to work on.

If we are still having difficulty achieving the goal, consider how realistic it is. Perhaps the goal set is really too much to accomplish given the time allowed, given the circumstances of the situation. In this case, we should go back to an earlier step and redefine our goal and then rework the process described above.

Shown is an example of a force-field analysis. A goal similar to the one described above has been stated. Some of the driving and restraining forces have been listed as exemplars; the listing is not exhaustive.

Two worksheets are shown—a worksheet for force-field analysis and an action plan worksheet. These worksheets can be used by you to help you establish goals and to make your own action plans.

ACTION PLAN WORKSHEET

Goal: _____

_____

_____

Force selected to work on: _____

_____

_____

Action idea(s) chosen: _____

_____

_____

What will be done?	Who will do it?	Where & when?	How?	Special resources needed

TOOL 5: BRAINSTORMING

Brainstorming is a procedure for generating a great number of ideas or alternatives about a particular subject, question, or problem, in a short period of time. The technique encourages people to be creative by setting up a situation where criticism and evaluation are not allowed.

In a brainstorming session, a group or individual is asked to react to a question or problem by writing down or calling out any reaction that comes to mind. These ideas are then recorded for future use. The following rules for brainstorming should be posted and enforced by the leader of any brainstorming session:

(1.) Say anything that comes to mind.

(2.) Discussion is not permitted

(3.) Criticism of statements is not permitted.

(4.) Repetition is okay.

(5.) Piggy-backing on other's ideas is okay.

(6.) When you think you are finished, keep going

The time for brainstorming will vary depending on the topic or problem. Usually, ten to fifteen minutes will be sufficient, providing time for 25 to 35 responses. In addition to brainstorming in a large group, individuals can brainstorm by themselves or in groups of two, three, or four.

Here are some suggestions for conducting a large-group brainstorm:

(1.) Post the rules for brainstorming so all can see them.

(2.) Ask someone who can write fairly rapidly and clearly to record the responses on newsprint or on a chalkboard; sometimes two recorders are needed. The recorder should record the responses exactly as they are stated, numbering them as they are written down.

(3.) Post the question that is to be brainstormed. Be certain that the question or topic is clearly understood by the group before proceeding with the recording of ideas.

(4.) Collect and record responses until the group seems to be finished or until time runs out. (Be sure to enforce the brainstorming rules.)

Once a brainstorming session is completed, it is useful to take some time to process the ideas. Very often one can find from 30 responses that they can be clustered into groups of five to seven responses per group so that in making action plans, the planners can refer to smaller numbers of ideas.

Another possibility for processing brainstorming is to rank order those ideas which seem to be most useful or most feasible and use the priority listing in helping make decisions about action planning.

There are two questions that we used in the workshop which can be useful to anybody making action plans:

(1.) Who do we need to involve—who are key individuals in coping with resistances to change?

(2.) Who do we need to involve as key resource people in helping us move toward our goal?

TOOL 6: CONSULTATION IN THE ROUND

This kind of consultation is very helpful in providing input to a planning group from a variety of resources who might otherwise not be involved or be able to offer ideas. During the workshop one team who was working on a plan agreed to participate in the consultation in the round.

Six chairs were set up in a semi-circle—three for the team members, two for the consultants, and one empty chair. (More than one empty chair can be made available). One consultant acted as a recorder of ideas; an easel with newsprint was available for recording; all other participants were clustered outside the semi-circle.

The procedure was to ask a series of questions of the team regarding its plan. (The plan in this case involved planning for a public meeting.) The team members and consultants offered suggestions to help the planning move along. Any of the other participants who wished could take the empty chair(s) and offer additional suggestions. In a very short time period the team had a wealth of ideas that enabled it to move ahead rapidly with planning.

TOOL 7: PLANNING A TURNED-ON MEETING

Below we offer two kinds of worksheets for planning a turned-on meeting. The first, Part I, asks a series of questions that enable a planning group to focus on critical aspects of any meeting. The second, Part II, suggests four categories that help planners work on details of the meeting.

One team was able to move ahead with some detailed planning. By using the worksheet tools above, the team was able to answer the questions and to sketch out some preliminary details. The results of this planning are given below as an illustration of how the worksheet tools can be used.

TOOL 7

PART I: PLANNING A "TURNED-ON" MEETING OR CONFERENCE

1. Who is going to be there? What do we know about their expectations, attitudes, needs, etc?

2. What outcomes would make this a successful meeting? At the end of the meeting what would the participants be saying, doing, planning to do that would be evidence of a successful meeting?

3. What are some of the things we might do in the meeting that would help it move toward these outcomes?

4. Who needs to be involved ahead of time--in planning, making contacts, producing material, or whatever?

PART II: PLANNING AND CONDUCTING A "TURNED-ON" MEETING

Time Flow Estimate	The Content or Activity	Who Does What To Facilitate & Lead	Resources, Facilities, Equipment, Set-up

PLANNING FOR A PUBLIC MEETING

1. Who should be there? What do we know, what can we assume, about their expectations, attitudes, needs? What different subgroups will be represented?

   People from both the communities; young parents; senior citizens; taxpayers; key community leaders; city council; chamber of commerce; the transient families; the less educated.

   Some will be uninformed but friendly; others distrustful about the expenditure of funds; others curious about education will be impressed by the new building facility; others . . .

2. What outcomes would make this a successful meeting?

   Enough understanding of the plans for the new building to be able to communicate to others; positive attitude about the plan and about being listened to; volunteer to participate in small meetings about specific aspects of new program; less resistance and distrust.

3. What are some things we might do in the meeting to facilitate these outcomes?

   Question-asking opportunities--small groups (3 or 4), formulate questions

   Chance to be turned on by participating in images about use of new building and improvements from the past

   Get a visual image of the new facility

   Hear about costs and reasons and comparison with other's costs

   Sign up for future meetings

4. Who needs to be involved ahead of time--in planning, promoting, producing materials, etc.?

   Building committee of the board

   The architect

   The superintendent and some of the faculty

   Representatives from the population--we want to get them . . . to advise on how to invite people and support their getting them

IDEAS ABOUT FLOW OF MEETING

Estimate of Time	The Activity	The Method	The Facilities & Resources
8:00 p.m.	Greeted as walk in door Register and receive slip with purpose of meeting and invitation to explore the exhibits before sitting down, and think about questions you want to ask	By students and planning committee members Ask to sit in front when sitting down Maybe cards to write questions on	Agenda for evening Visual sheet exhibits
8:30 p.m.	Brief slide presentation of "the old and the new" comparison of educational program opportunities Architect being interviewed or as respondent to questions from flow--not a speech	Slides and request to talk with neighbors to formulate questions to ask Students, as well as teachers and administrators as part of the response panel	Slides and projector
9:00 p.m.	Resource center tour to discuss, give reactions, feed in ideas about the program	Resource persons and info exhibits around the hall--ring bell for periods so people can move to participate in several centers	Resource persons, materials, space around room
9:30 p.m.	Presentation by superintendent or board of need for smaller interest groups to meet to probe in depth and help with ideas	Sign-up for interest in future sessions on a variety of topics or questions	Sign-up sheets on wall near door
9:45 p.m.	Feedback of feelings about the meeting	Feedback cards to be dropped in box at door, e.g., rating on satisfaction, comments, etc.	Distribute and collection of feadback cards

62

TOOL 8: PROCEDURE FOR PERSONALIZED SKILL PRACTICE

The idea of "skill practice," or "anticipatory practice," or the "dry run," was developed as far back as the time of Genghis Khan. Actually, this idea has not been used very extensively in American education, although it has been used actively by the military and industry. If the idea of skill practice is presented in school, or in education at all, it is often treated mechanically in some of the so-called simulation/game areas.

There are two key ideas relating to feedback to skilled behavior. Most of our behavior is in situations where our actions are on the line. In other words, we are being critically evaluated so that it is pretty hard to be open, to be flexible, or to consider alternatives while we are involved in such critical interaction processes. Therefore, to get feedback about behavior, one must be in a situation where he/she is not playing for keeps. This may be in a role-playing situation or a situation of relationships in reality where there is interpersonal support for taking risks.

Very frequently, intentions fall by the wayside because they are not linked to enough alternatives to have a good chance of behavioral success. This often happens in problem-solving efforts. Everyone agrees on the commitment and intention, then someone comes up with a plan and the group zeroes in on that one action suggestion. No matter how skilled the behavior, if the action suggestion is on the wrong track it will fail. The group will not succeed because alternative behavior was not considered.

We should recognize that while many groups have goals and aims, they have no intention of acting on these goals. Take the example of the faculty/student leadership team of an urban metropolitan university. The goal of the president of the student body and his cabinet was to work out a proposal for an acre of grass to be planted in front of the administration building. When asked, "Do you think this is really a realistic goal to work on for a whole day?" the answer of the student body president was, "No, I don't think so."

"So why are you spending so much time and energy on it?"

"Well," he said, "so when we fail we won't feel so guilty about it."

Perhaps this example can help remind us of many of our own experiences. We have many techniques of premature closure. We pat ourselves on the back at various points short of real action. As educators, we are challenged to link our ideas first to goals, and then to skilled action, and then, to move ahead to practicing, in a safe situation, alternative actions.

As was discussed in Chapter 1, the consultant team role-played the situation of the assistant superintendent and the community woman who was interested in Japanese flower arranging. During the second day, the participants had an opportunity to engage in skill practice using some of the punchlines that were developed.

Below we offer a series of steps that are important in planning for skill practice. If these steps are followed, skill practice sessions can be useful and productive.

(1.) Select a "punchline" from the ones suggested, or create a new one.

(2.) Develop a situation to go with the punchline.

(3.) Clarify what characteristics or characters are needed to role play the situation, decide who will take the role(s).

(4.) Who will observe during the situation?

(5.) Send practicer out of group and set up the situation and clarify the briefing for the practicer when he/she is called back.

(6.) Observer starts the role play and cuts. Keep it brief.

(7.) Observer leads feedback sessions as follows:

(a.) Ask practicer what his intentions were

(b.) Ask consultees about effects on them, their reactions

(c.) Give own observations of what you and other observers saw happen

(d.) Ask everyone to pool ideas about alternative ways of coping

(8.) Send practicer out to think about new approach.

(9.) Replay the situation and discuss.

(10.) Decide whether practicer wants to try again; or somebody should try it? or whether it's time to go on to another situation.

(11.) Don't rush; retrys and analysis are the priorities of skill development.

TOOL 9: GROUP INTERVIEW

The purpose of the group interview is to get information directly and indirectly via a structured conversation. The value of this tool lies in its ability to free people in order to present new ideas, provide a quicker, more reliable mechanism than a questionnaire, allow group interviewers to work as pairs—one interviews while the other records, and focuses on listening for the interviewers.

The questions to consider before using a group interview include:

What is the purpose?
How will you recruit interviewers?
How will you recruit interviewees?
How will you train interviewers?

The steps taken in conducting a group interview are:

(1.) The interviewer presents the purpose of the group interview and allows time for questions.

(2.) Recording all the answers, the interviewer asks for responses to the following questions:

What do you think of when I say volunteers?

What kinds of experiences have you had with young people?

What did you like about this experience? Why?

What did you not like about it? Why?

What kinds of experiences/skills do you have that kids might be interested in? (Examples include writing, poetry, woodworking, liking math)

When could you help kids?

How often?

Best time for your orientation training?

Anyone else you know to help?

(3.) The recorders sheet should include: purpose; questions; things the group thinks of; kinds of experiences they've had, likes and dislikes; kinds of skills for sharing, what, when, how often; the best times for training; other questions; make sure that for each nominee names, addresses and phone numbers are provided.

The following is a list of sources from which interviewees can be recruited:

(1.) Clubs such as: Garden, Church, PTA, Service Clubs, AAUW

(2.) A Nomination Sheet—These are people selected by the group

(3.) Friends

(4.) District newsletter, newspaper, radio, television

(5.) Senior Citizens

(6.) Students nominate interviewees and may also become volunteers

(7.) Colleges

(8.) Private Schools

(9.) Bulletin Boards in places such as: Church, Laundromats, Community Centers (tear off information cards should be provided)

(10.) Teachers

(11.) One volunteer recruits another

During the Training Session for Group Interviewers you should: familiarize self with schedule and purpose; familiarize self with recorder's blank; use demonstration and model-critique; develop skill practice to try out in pairs of trios; and talk about the process in three or four pairs sharing and improving the model.

At end of interviews recruit some of the interviewers to share findings and pool the data.

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